

The Department of State

SEP 28 1956

SEP 28 1956

Vol. XXXV, No. 899

September 17, 1956



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The Department of State bulletin

VOL. XXXV, No. 899 • PUBLICATION 6390

September 17, 1956

The Department of State BULLETIN, a weekly publication issued by the Public Services Division, provides the public and interested agencies of the Government with information on developments in the field of foreign relations and on the work of the Department of State and the Foreign Service. The BULLETIN includes selected press releases on foreign policy, issued by the White House and the Department, and statements and addresses made by the President and by the Secretary of State and other officers of the Department, as well as special articles on various phases of international affairs and the functions of the Department. Information is included concerning treaties and international agreements to which the United States is or may become a party and treaties of general international interest.

Publications of the Department, United Nations documents, and legislative material in the field of international relations are listed currently.

For sale by the Superintendent of Documents
U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington 25, D.C.

PRICE:
52 issues, domestic \$7.50, foreign \$10.25
Single copy, 20 cents

The printing of this publication has been approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget (January 19, 1955).

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How the U.S. Government Is Organized To Participate in the U.N. System

by Lincoln P. Bloomfield

The United Nations under its charter, to which the United States and 75 other nations are signatories, is a center for harmonizing the actions of nations in the maintenance of international peace and security, the development of friendly relations among nations, and the achievement of international cooperation in the economic and social fields.

The United Nations deals in the first instance with a wide range of international political problems involving security, regulation of armaments, peaceful settlement of disputes, and peaceful change of the international status of territories, all of which are of major concern to the United States as a leading world power. In addition to political and security problems, there is a host of complex functional problems which cut across national boundaries. The self-interest of nations, including our own, requires international cooperation in dealing with them constructively. Economic, social, educational, human rights, and related international problems are dealt with by the United Nations and the specialized agencies, which together make up what is here referred to as the United Nations system.

In practice, the United Nations has acquired major significance as an agency for influencing world opinion and for openly combating the political warfare and propaganda of world communism. At the same time, it has proved to be a significant center for diplomatic negotiation.

Multilateral diplomacy is complementary to bilateral diplomacy, not a rival to it. The United Nations is an important means to achieve broad

foreign policy ends to which the United States is committed. The American national interest is served by the use that is made of this instrument and by our effectiveness in preventing its misuse by others.

For these fundamental reasons, the Congress has provided a body of legislative authorization under which the executive branch develops and carries out policies and programs through international organizations in order to further the interests of the United States. (Annex A lists the pertinent treaties, statutes, and other legislative acts.)

The United Nations System

In the United Nations proper, the representative organ is the General Assembly, which meets annually for approximately 3 months and may hold special sessions. All 76 member nations participate with equal voice and vote. (The number will increase to 79 with the election of the Sudan, Morocco, and Tunisia, whose admission recently was recommended by the Security Council.)

• *Mr. Bloomfield is Special Assistant for United Nations Planning to the Assistant Secretary for International Organization Affairs. This article brings up to date his earlier article entitled "The Department of State and the United Nations," which was published in the Bulletin of November 20, 1950.*

The Security Council has 11 members including the 5 permanent members, who have the right to veto important matters. The Economic and Social Council consists of 18 nations, the great powers in practice always being reelected. The Trusteeship Council has 14 members among whom the Big Five are also always represented. The Disarmament Commission has the same membership as the Security Council (plus Canada, because of its atomic development). The Military Staff Committee consists of military representatives of the "big five" Chiefs of Staff, including our own. All members are entitled to sit on the Interim Committee. Temporary United Nations bodies include the Collective Measures Committee and Peace Observation Commission (14 members each).

United Nations operating programs include the Technical Assistance Administration, Korean Reconstruction Agency, Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East, the Children's Fund, and the United Nations Refugee Emergency Fund.

Under the Economic and Social Council are eight functional commissions—Statistical, Population, Social, Human Rights, Status of Women, Narcotics, International Commodity Trade, and Transport-Communications—plus three regional economic commissions—Europe, Asia, Latin America. The United States has been elected to membership in all these bodies.

The International Court of Justice, sitting at The Hague, consists of 15 judges elected by the General Assembly and Security Council. It has jurisdiction in contentious cases brought by agreement of states and renders advisory legal opinions at the request of the Assembly or Security Council.

The United Nations Secretariat, with personnel drawn from many member nations, serves all organs of the United Nations.

Outside the United Nations proper but considered part of the United Nations system are the 10 specialized agencies—intergovernmental bodies in technical fields where what might be called functional problems cross national and regional boundaries and require cooperative efforts. These are the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), World Health Organization (WHO), International Monetary Fund (IMF), International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), Universal Postal Union (UPU), International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), International

Labor Organization (ILO), World Meteorological Organization (WMO), International Telecommunication Union (ITU), and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).

In general, the specialized agencies are autonomous and directed by their various governing bodies, on which the United States and other member governments sit. However, through agreements between these agencies and the Economic and Social Council, as prescribed in the United Nations Charter, their programs and administration are reviewed and coordinated by the United Nations.

In process of creation is the proposed International Atomic Energy Agency, which grew out of President Eisenhower's atoms-for-peace proposals to the United Nations, as well as the proposed International Maritime Consultative Organization (IMCO) and Organization for Trade Cooperation (OTC). Outside the United Nations system but performing functions of concern to the United Nations are such *ad hoc* intergovernmental consultative arrangements as those under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and the Intergovernmental Committee on European Migration (ICEM).

United States Chain of Command

The President is responsible for the formulation, execution, and coordination of foreign policies. As Chief Executive, as Commander in Chief, and as Chairman of the National Security Council, he presides over the process of defining United States objectives in the world and coordinating foreign affairs activities to achieve those objectives.

In directing United States participation in international organizations the President under his constitutional authority determines policy and designates representatives and agencies for its execution.

The National Security Council advises the President as prescribed by statute and acts on major policy problems arising in the United Nations in the same way as with other foreign policy issues before it.

The Secretary of State is principal adviser to the President in the determination and execution of United States foreign policy and is charged with the responsibility for all the activities of the State Department. In directing United States relations with international organizations, the

Secretary performs his functions in the same fashion as he does in all fields of international relations.

The Assistant Secretary for International Organization Affairs¹ is one of the "five Assistant Secretaries with action responsibilities," who, in the words of the Hoover Commission, have "responsibility for decisions within clearly defined limits" and "serve as focal points of contact between the Department and the overseas and international organization missions in both substantive and administrative matters." The Hoover Commission described the Assistant Secretary for International Organization Affairs as being "in charge of relationships with international organizations, including the United Nations and its affiliated organizations" and as "the channel for instructions to and from United States representatives and delegations at the United Nations" as well as to certain other international organizations and conferences.

The Assistant Secretary for International Organization Affairs has the function of servicing or backstopping the United States Representative to the United Nations and United States delegates to other United Nations agencies (and some non-United Nations bodies). The end result is to insure that the policies these representatives express in the name of the United States Government always represent agreed national policy.

To furnish this staff support, the Assistant Secretary supervises the Bureau of International Organization Affairs, which provides three types of services:

- (1) It coordinates the policy views and technical requirements originating in various other parts of the Department and other agencies, so that United States representatives in international organizations can be sure they are always stating consistent and unified United States positions.

- (2) It develops the actual United States policy positions on questions which are peculiarly multilateral in nature, which cut across the bilateral functions of the geographic units and the specialized subject units in other agencies, and which no other office is staffed or equipped to handle.

- (3) It assembles in one unit the special knowledge and experience the United States has built up in the field of multilateral diplomacy so that the

¹The present Assistant Secretary is Francis O. Wilcox, formerly chief of staff of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee.

Government can prepare itself most efficiently to uphold its interests in international organizations.

Thus, in the first category, where another part of the Department of State or another Government agency is responsible for relations with one area or one subject, the Bureau furnishes policy guidance for use in international organizations in terms of precedents, relation to United Nations matters, parliamentary problems, United Nations personalities, etc.

In the second category, the Bureau of International Organization Affairs has the primary policy responsibility for specialized multilateral questions. Examples of these are political matters of an interregional nature (in the United Nations this has meant such items as admission of new members and counterstrategy to Soviet propaganda charges), collective security preparations, review of the United Nations Charter, world refugee problems, parliamentary tactics which have been proved best by experience in specific United Nations agencies, international secretariat problems, operations of the United Nations trusteeship system and problems of non-self-governing territories, world health, social welfare, narcotics, human rights, interpretation of articles of the United Nations Charter, international budgets, and the diplomatic aspects of arms regulation.

In the third category, the Bureau of International Organization Affairs contributes to the process of policymaking the technical know-how in the field of multilateral diplomacy. This means chiefly the political and organizational side of the work of United Nations bodies. It includes questions of credentials, elections (the balancing of interests, blocs, and geographic distribution in the membership and officers of multilateral bodies), budgets, secretariat organization and practices, agenda and procedural problems, and the relationship of other multilateral bodies to the United Nations.

The United States Representative to the United Nations is, as prescribed by Executive Order 10108,² the Chief of the United States Mission to the United Nations (USUN). In addition, President Eisenhower in 1953 appointed Henry Cabot Lodge, Jr., the United States Representative to the United Nations, to be a member of his Cabinet. This was the first time such a designation had been made.

²15 Fed. Reg. 757.

The Mission includes various other United States representatives and deputy representatives (i. e., those serving in the United Nations Economic and Social Council and its commissions, the Trusteeship Council, Disarmament Commission, Military Staff Committee, etc.) and the Deputy Representative to the United Nations, who is also Deputy Chief of Mission and Deputy Representative on the Security Council.

The United States Representative coordinates "the activities of the Mission in carrying out the instructions of the President transmitted either by the Secretary of State or by other means of transmission as directed by the President." He thus is responsible for directing United States Government activities at United Nations Headquarters, administers the United States Mission, is the chief United States Representative in the United Nations Security Council, chairman or acting chairman of the United States delegation to the General Assembly, representative *ex officio* and principal United States spokesman in any United Nations body at United Nations Headquarters, and principal United States negotiator with the United Nations Secretariat and representatives in New York of other member governments.

The United States Mission to the United Nations, while unique in many ways, is in a sense comparable to a major American Embassy abroad in terms of the normal working relationships with the State Department. Just as the Bureau of European Affairs is the "home desk" for our London Embassy, so the Bureau of International Organization Affairs is the "home desk" for the United States Mission to the United Nations. The American Ambassadors in both cases are appointed by and responsible to the President. The appropriate Assistant Secretary of State, acting for the Secretary, is in both cases responsible for insuring that they are instructed and advised, that such instructions and advice represent the coordinated views of the Government (including where necessary the decisions of the Secretary, the Nsc, and the President) and for receiving the information they report and seeing that it is appropriately used in Washington. Under special circumstances, the head of the United States Mission, like other ambassadors, occasionally receives his instructions directly from the Secretary of State or the President. The head of the United States Mission takes an active part in the formulation of

United States policy and tactics both prior to and during United Nations meetings and recommends changes in policies if in his opinion on-the-spot conditions so require.

Participating Agencies

Multilateral diplomacy involves a wide variety of subjects, only a limited number of which are purely political. The Department of State, in collaboration with military and other agencies, directly manages United States interests in problems which are primarily of a political or security nature, such as disputes between states, organization of collective defense against aggression, problems involving colonial areas of the world, and world trade.

The political and territorial problems which arise in the United Nations General Assembly, Security Council, and Trusteeship Council are basically the responsibility of the Department of State. The Department of Defense has a major interest in these issues and in the military and security aspects of the disarmament proposals, as has the Atomic Energy Commission. The international political aspects of disarmament are a continuing responsibility of the Department of State, with general policy coordination furnished by the President's Special Assistant on Disarmament. In the case of the Trusteeship Council, the Departments of the Navy and Interior administer certain overseas territories and possessions of the United States, and their assistance is required periodically in reporting on our stewardship and administration of United States territories.

Since World War II the United States has greatly increased its collaboration with large numbers of nations on essentially technical questions of mutual interest, such as epidemic control, famine relief, currency stabilization, flight safety, labor conditions, narcotics smuggling, radio frequency allocations, and comparative statistical methods. This has meant that other agencies of the United States Government must be looked to for defining this country's interests in the matter, often in consultation with business, farm, professional, and labor organizations. Because of the diversity of subjects dealt with internationally, these expert "source" areas range across much of the Government, from the Atomic Energy Commission to the Tariff Commission, from the Narcotics Bureau to the Department of Agriculture, from the Budget

Bureau to the Civil Aeronautics Board. In addition to the Department of State at least 24 other executive agencies are concerned with United Nations activities, and frequently the success of the domestic programs they undertake is materially affected by what happens in the United Nations body which is dealing with the same subject.

The Coordination of Policy

The Process of Coordination

The objective of United States participation is to forward this Nation's role and interests in multilateral diplomatic bodies. In organizing and disciplining United States Government machinery to participate in this process, there are two objectives: (1) to insure that the United States speaks with one voice on issues arising in the international forums; and (2) to insure that this voice represents the best-considered judgment and skill that can be brought to bear on problems of foreign policy. At all of the meetings of the United Nations organs and subsidiary bodies and specialized agencies a United States representative must be prepared to speak for his Government on the matter at issue. This explains why the structure must be pyramidal—a broad base to secure as many points of view as possible, exchange ideas and information, and develop policy recommendations; a system of screening and reviewing to secure responsible approval of policies and, where necessary, to reconcile them with positions taken on other matters; and, finally, a point of departure at which the official sanction of the Government can be granted so that the United States representative in the international body may be assured that he speaks with complete authority. This process involves not only the preparation of official positions before a particular meeting but also the adjustment of those positions during the meeting itself, as circumstances require.

The stage at which the coordination process comes to light is the instruction of American delegates and representatives, and expression by them of the official policies and views of the United States at the meetings of international organizations. We have permanent missions at the United Nations in New York, at the International Civil Aviation Organization in Montreal, and in Geneva for liaison with the United Nations European office and the several specialized agencies located there. There are also United States liaison officers for

Fao at Rome, for UNESCO at Paris, for the Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA) at Santiago, and for the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE) at Bangkok. United States delegations are assembled, instructed, and sent to conferences of international bodies throughout the world.

Between sessions of major United Nations organs, there is a continuous process of consultation and exchange of views and information with other governments on United Nations problems. This consultation takes place throughout the year among the permanent delegations to the United Nations in New York. Other exchanges are carried on by United States missions abroad with the various Foreign Offices. Still other talks are held by the Department of State with the foreign missions in Washington. The use of these diplomatic channels is intensified during periods prior to major conferences and reaches its peak in the months immediately preceding the annual session of the United Nations General Assembly.

The final step in the process is the implementation of decisions and recommendations produced by the international organizations. When an adopted resolution of one of the organs of the United Nations or one of the specialized agencies is transmitted to the Secretary of State by the Secretary-General or Director General concerned, the machinery of the executive branch must insure that proper action is taken by this country. The responsibility for action must be assigned; there must be followup mechanisms to insure that the action is taken; and a report must generally be made to the organization. In addition, there is a continuing stream of questionnaires and requests for information that require coordinated replies.

The process of United States participation in international organizations thus works like a funnel. At one end, experts in various Government agencies recommend policies for the United States to adopt in the United Nations on a wide variety of topics. At the other end United States spokesmen in international forums are expected to state these policies with clarity and authority. This presents the Government with a formidable task of coordination.

When real conflicts of views exist between interested parts of the executive branch, they must be resolved before a unified and agreed American position can be confidently presented in an international forum. Even when no substantive conflict

exists, varying approaches and methods are often suggested by the interested agencies. These contributions must be brought into harmony.

The ultimate purpose of the coordination process is to insure that, when the United States speaks officially to the world at large, it speaks with one voice and with the knowledge that in the next room, the next city, or the next continent other United States spokesmen are, so to speak, on the same wave length. United States policies must fit together into an effective program for the advancement of United States interests throughout the whole United Nations system.

The Machinery of Coordination

The process within the Government of funneling to a single point of action all necessary views and interests on a host of political and nonpolitical subjects requires machinery of coordination. The central point for this function of coordination is the Bureau of International Organization Affairs in the State Department.

Under the Assistant Secretary for International Organization Affairs, the Bureau's five offices—U.N. Political and Security Affairs, International Economic and Social Affairs, Dependent Area Affairs, International Administration, and International Conferences—pull together the many threads within the executive branch with the purpose of insuring that throughout the whole system of international organizations and conferences the representatives of this Government are adequately equipped with agreed policies on all topics of concern to the United States.

The Hoover Commission recommended that the Assistant Secretary for International Organization Affairs, "while participating in the formulation of foreign policy . . . should, so far as possible, obtain his policy guidance from the various regional units, the Planning [Staff], and from other staff advisers. . . ." In accordance with this, as indicated earlier, the Bureau operates in the first instance as the coordinator of Departmentwide and Governmentwide policy-formulating operations.

A considerable part of the coordination job is done through informal day-to-day contacts between the Bureau's desk officers and the "subject specialists" elsewhere in the Department or other Government agencies. Often this is the only way in which deadlines can be met at United Nations meetings or prompt action taken to deal with im-

minent votes or sudden shifts in position by other countries. In this way also the countless routine matters that arise in various international organization operations can be resolved with a minimum of formal clearances.

In the political field, for example, when there are indications that a political problem will come before the United Nations, a working team is formed. The subject may be Korea or Palestine, Morocco or Kashmir. The representative of the Office of U.N. Political and Security Affairs usually chairs the group, prepares papers for its consideration, and drafts instructions for the United States Representative. His responsibility is to insure that the views of all interested offices are secured and that any information required is obtained from Department and overseas files. He furnishes the knowledge of United Nations Charter considerations, precedents established in various United Nations bodies, past performances of various delegations and delegates, voting probabilities, and operation of regional and special-interest blocs in the United Nations. He frequently acts as principal adviser to the United States Representative during the United Nations meetings when the case is considered.

Also on the team are representatives of the affected geographic areas, who provide the general United States policies toward the countries in question—although these must be reconciled where, for example, one desk officer is speaking of American interests with respect to the United Kingdom and the other regarding our interests in Greece, as in the Cyprus case in the General Assembly. In addition, they furnish the knowledge of geographic factors, national idiosyncrasies, and official personalities; and often they participate in the actual General Assembly or Security Council sessions as political liaison officers with delegates from countries in their areas. To harmonize the work of the geographic bureaus with that of the Bureau of International Organization Affairs, each has a full-time adviser on United Nations affairs, who collaborates continuously with the officers of the Bureau on international organization problems affecting the particular region.

These teams also frequently include representatives of the Legal Adviser's office and, when necessary, of the public-affairs, economic, and research offices. The member from the Office of U.N. Political and Security Affairs often consults informally on military aspects of the cases with officers

in the Defense Department. The team members turn to their respective Assistant Secretaries for major decisions, and these in turn consult higher echelons, as required, before approving final United States positions. Many political issues in the United Nations require decisions by the Secretary of State, and in some cases the President. Either the Bureau of International Organization Affairs or the geographic offices undertake consultation with appropriate United States missions abroad and foreign envoys in Washington.

An essentially similar process takes place within the Department on economic and social questions before the United Nations and specialized agencies. Here the clearance process involves not only many different units within the State Department but a variety of other Government agencies as well.

A group of interdepartmental committees furnishes the chief means of coordination in the economic and social field. There are also a few committees which make recommendations on certain special political and security questions, such as colonial problems and regulation of armaments. (Annex B lists some of the major interdepartmental committees concerned with international organization problems.) Unless another agency clearly has a predominant interest (e. g., the Department of Agriculture, for FAO), the State Department furnishes the chairman or secretary of the committees. Within the State Department, the Bureau usually provides either or both. In the technical economic committees the economic area of the State Department generally leads the Department's participating group, which usually includes the Bureau. Position papers on multilateral economic subjects often require personal approval by several Cabinet officers before the normal process of clearance through the interdepartmental committees can be completed.

The same process also operates in dealing with problems of dependent and colonial areas, where issues of the greatest complexity arise which vitally affect United States relations with both its principal allies and the strategically important regions of Asia, the Middle East, and Africa, where most dependent areas are located. Conflicts between these two groups on colonial questions come to a head in the United Nations, both in the Trusteeship Council and in the General Assembly. The Office of Dependent Area Affairs teams up with

the geographic desk officers concerned and with Defense and Interior Department officers for the task of harmonizing both within the United States Government and in the United Nations the traditional United States attitudes toward colonial peoples on the one hand and the special problems of the administering authorities, which include close allies of this country, on the other.

During the process of developing United States policies the Department of State, through the Bureau of International Organization Affairs, constantly consults the United States Representative to the United Nations and members of his staff, seeking their views and judgment on all matters of importance. For his part, the United States Representative conducts consultations with his diplomatic colleagues in New York and carries the burden of top-level negotiation on behalf of the United States Government on all matters under discussion in the United Nations. As a source of political intelligence, the United Nations is a key diplomatic listening post for all member governments. The United States representatives are constantly in contact with high officials from 75 other countries. This flow of information, combined with the recommendations of our representatives, significantly influences the formulation of policy, of strategy, and of tactics.

The Bureau of International Organization Affairs, like other areas of the Department, is responsible for keeping the U.S. Information Agency currently provided with policy information on important aspects of U.S. participation in the U.N. This is accomplished by formal communications through the public-affairs area, by daily briefing conferences, and by informal contacts. An important purpose of this liaison with USIA is to insure that United States positions and policies advanced through the United Nations, the specialized agencies, and other international organizations are given full and prompt dissemination abroad through facilities of USIA. The Bureau also arranges for USIA officers to be represented on the United States delegations to the U.N. General Assembly and to certain other important conferences.

Conference Operations

In the United Nations system most meetings are regularly scheduled and can be planned for systematically. Other international bodies frequently issue invitations for special conferences. The Office of International Conferences screens

all such invitations, recommends as to United States participation, negotiates throughout the Government the makeup of the United States delegations, assists when appropriate with the preparations of United States positions, allocates funds, makes all travel and housing arrangements, and, in meetings away from United Nations Headquarters, furnishes the service staff of the delegation itself. After the meeting this office makes sure that responsibilities for all official reports, documents, and other followup items are properly discharged.

Formal steps in the process of administrative preparations are:

Staff study—The Office of International Conferences, with concurrences of all policy units affected, secures the written approval of the Assistant Secretary for International Organization Affairs or, if necessary, the Secretary of State or the President, for United States participation in each international meeting.

Naming of United States delegations—Public Law 341, in addition to requiring Presidential appointment of permanent United States representatives to United Nations organs, specifically makes the President responsible for naming United States delegates to the annual United Nations General Assembly. Presidential appointments are also required by statute for certain other United States delegations, such as those to the WHO Assembly. To ease the burden on the White House for the appointment of delegates to numerous lesser meetings, the President on February 26, 1948, approved a delegation of authority to the Secretary of State "to designate all . . . representatives and delegates as well as advisory and secretarial staff for all groups" other than those assigned by law to the President, or in special cases, such as the naming of congressional consultants.

On March 6, 1953, the Secretary of State redelegated his authority to the Assistant Secretary for International Organization Affairs. All delegation members are named subject to security clearance. The Bureau of International Organization Affairs, in addition to coordinating all policy preparations, administers the funds for conference participation, and decides on the advisory and service staffs of United States delegations after weighing recommendations from all interested offices and agencies. The basic factors are the scope of the agenda and the availability of funds. The

specific criteria are: (1) delegation members must be, to the greatest extent possible, working members, actually responsible for agenda items; (2) they must be able to handle several items each; (3) they must, generally, represent the Government as a whole; and (4) maximum use should be made of qualified United States personnel at the conference site.

ANNEX A

Statutory Authority

The basis for United States participation in the United Nations system resides in a body of legislation through which the Congress provided both the statutory authority and the means:

Both Houses of Congress went on record by a bipartisan vote in 1943 as favoring United States participation in an international peace organization, through S. Res. 192 and H. Con. Res. 25, both of the 78th Congress.

The Senate ratified the United Nations Charter on July 26, 1945, by a vote of 89 to 2.

The 79th Congress passed the United Nations Participation Act of 1945 (59 Stat. 619; 22 U. S. C. 287-287c) "to provide for the appointment of representatives of the United States in the organs and agencies of the United Nations and to make other provision with respect to the participation of the United States in such organization."

In addition, the United Nations Headquarters Agreement (61 Stat. 756-768), the Vandenberg Resolution of 1949 (S. Res. 239, 80th Congress), the United Nations Headquarters Loan Legislation (62 Stat. 1286), the International Court of Justice accession (61 Stat. (2) 1218), the International Organizations Immunities Act (59 Stat. 669-673; 22 U. S. C. 288-288f), and the annual appropriations of funds all form parts of the legislative mandate for United States participation in the United Nations.

Congress has also authorized participation in the various specialized agencies of the United Nations, as follows:

- International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO)—(61 Stat. 1180-1220)
- Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)—(62 Stat. 441; 64 Stat. 902; 22 U. S. C. 279-279d)
- World Health Organization (WHO)—(62 Stat. 441; 64 Stat. 902; 22 U. S. C. 290-290d)
- International Labor Organization (ILO)—(62 Stat. 1151, as amended; 64 Stat. 903; 48 Stat. 1182; 49 Stat. 2712; 22 U. S. C. 272)
- International Monetary Fund (IMF)—(59 Stat. 512-517; 60 Stat. 535; 22 U. S. C. 286-286m)
- International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)—(59 Stat. 512-517; 60 Stat. 535; 22 U. S. C. 286-286m)
- World Meteorological Organization (WMO)—(ratified April 20, 1949)
- U.N. Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

(UNESCO)—(60 Stat. 712-714; 22 U. S. C. 287m-287t)

International Telecommunication Union (ITU)—(63 Stat. (2) 1399)

Universal Postal Union (UPU)—(5 U. S. C. 372, as amended; 48 Stat. 943)

U.S. participation in the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)—a temporary agency of the United Nations—was authorized by 61 Stat. 125, 939; 62 Stat. 157; 63 Stat. 412; 22 U. S. C. 1411, 1531-1536, and by Executive Order 9944.

The designation and organization of the United States Mission to the United Nations in New York is currently prescribed by Executive Order 10108 of February 9, 1950, which is a revision of Executive Order 9844, dated April 28, 1947.

ANNEX B

Major Interdepartmental Committees Which Deal With International Organization Matters³

Air Coordinating Committee

Functions: Formulates U.S. policy regarding both domestic and foreign aviation matters.

Membership: *COMMERCE*, Air Force, Army, Bureau of the Budget, Civil Aeronautics Board, Federal Communications Commission, Navy, Office of Defense Mobilization, Post Office, State, Treasury. (A secretariat, located in Commerce but financed by all the participating agencies, services both the committee and the subcommittee.)

Subcommittee on General International Civil Aviation Organization Matters

Membership: *STATE*, Air Force, Civil Aeronautics Board, *Commerce*, Navy, Post Office

President's Special Committee on Disarmament

Functions: Coordination of policy studies on disarmament problems.

Membership: *PRESIDENT'S SPECIAL ASSISTANT ON DISARMAMENT*, State, Defense, Atomic Energy Commission, Central Intelligence Agency, Justice.

Interagency Committee on Food and Agriculture Organization

Functions: Formulates U.S. positions in *Fao*, under a chairman appointed by the Secretary of Agriculture, with State providing "policy guidance on international political . . . and general organizational and administrative questions . . ."

Membership: *AGRICULTURE*, Army, Bureau of the Budget, Commerce, Health, Education and Welfare, Interior, International Cooperation Administration, Labor, Treasury.

A subcommittee, composed of *AGRICULTURE*, International Cooperation Administration, Interior, and State,

³ The agency furnishing the committee chairman is listed first in capital letters; the agency furnishing the executive secretary is italicized.

as well as the Food and Agriculture Organization, deals informally with questions of multilateral-bilateral coordination of technical assistance programs in the *Fao* area.

Interdepartmental Committee on Education Activities in International Organizations

Functions: Advises Secretary of State on education problems and developments in such organizations as Organization of American States, International Bureau of Education, and *UNESCO*.

Membership: *HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE*, Agriculture, International Cooperation Administration, Labor, *State*.

Interdepartmental Committee on Foreign Policy Relating to Human Rights

Functions: Advises Secretary of State on human rights questions in the United Nations.

Membership: *STATE*, Health, Education and Welfare, Interior, Justice, Labor.

Interdepartmental Committee on International Labor Policy

Functions: Advises Secretary of State on U.S. policies in International Labor Organization.

Membership: *LABOR*, Commerce, Health, Education and Welfare, International Cooperation Administration, Justice, *State*.

Interdepartmental Committee on International Social Welfare Policy

Functions: Advises Secretary of State on social questions in the United Nations.

Membership: *HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE*, Agriculture, Justice, Labor, *State*.

Interdepartmental Committee on Narcotics

Functions: Advises President of measures which should be taken to combat the domestic and international illicit traffic in narcotics.

Membership: *TREASURY*, Agriculture, Defense, Health, Education and Welfare, Justice, *State*.

National Advisory Council on International Monetary and Financial Problems

Functions: Coordinates policies and operations of U.S. representatives on the International Bank and International Monetary Fund, the Export-Import Bank of Washington, and all other Government agencies engaged in foreign loans and foreign financial exchange and monetary transactions.

Membership: *TREASURY*, Commerce, Export-Import Bank, Federal Reserve Board, *State*.

Interdepartmental Committee on Non-Self-Governing Territories

Functions: With special reference to the field of non-self-governing territories, examines problems of developments of a social and economic character which affect or are affected by United States foreign policy, and formulates recommendations thereon to the appropriate agencies and agents.

Membership: *STATE*, Agriculture, Health, Education and Welfare, Commerce, Interior, Labor, Navy.

Telecommunications Coordinating Committee

Functions: Advises Secretary of State on telecommunications problems insofar as they concern international relations.

Membership: *STATE*, Civil Aeronautics Administration, Federal Communications Commission, Army, Navy, Air Force, Coast Guard.

United Nations Economic Committee

Functions: Advises the Secretary of State on economic policy and technical assistance questions in connection with the work of U. N. organs and specialized agencies as well as other intergovernmental organizations in the economic field that are not treated by a specialized interdepartmental committee.

Membership: *STATE*, Agriculture, Bureau of the Budget, Commerce, Council of Economic Advisers, Federal Reserve Board, Health, Education and Welfare, Housing and Home Finance, Interior, International Cooperation Administration, Labor, Securities and Exchange Commission, Tariff Commission, Treasury.

NOTE: A large portion of the former Foreign Operations Administration was transferred to the Department of State in 1955 as the International Cooperation Administration. ICA operates within the State Department as a semi-autonomous agency and has independent representation in certain interdepartmental committees.

Alternate Representative Appointed to ICAO Council

The White House announced on August 31 that the President had that day appointed Howard W. Helfert to be Alternate Representative of the United States on the Council of the International Civil Aviation Organization.

Letters of Credence

Morocco

The newly appointed Ambassador of Morocco, Dr. El Mehdi Ben Mohamed Ben Aboud, presented his credentials to President Eisenhower on September 5. For the text of the Ambassador's remarks and the text of the President's reply, see Department of State press release 467.

Tunisia

The newly appointed Ambassador of Tunisia, Mongi Slim, presented his credentials to President Eisenhower on September 6. For the text of the Ambassador's remarks and the text of the Presi-

dent's reply, see Department of State press release 468.

Union of South Africa

The newly appointed Ambassador of the Union of South Africa, Wentzel Christoffel du Plessis, presented his credentials to President Eisenhower on September 7. For the text of the Ambassador's remarks and the text of the President's reply, see Department of State press release 471.

Proposed Talks With Rumania

Press release 469 dated September 6

In a note presented in Bucharest to the Rumanian Ministry of Foreign Affairs on August 29, 1956,¹ the U.S. Government has stated that it is prepared to enter into talks with the Rumanian Government on certain questions outstanding between the United States and Rumania.

This note was in further reply to an earlier Rumanian proposal for talks on the questions of U.S. claims against Rumania, Rumanian assets in the United States, and trade with the United States. On April 28, 1956, the U.S. Government had informed the Rumanian Government that it was prepared to discuss these economic questions, provided the Rumanian Government would agree to discuss certain other problems which have been at issue between the two governments for several years, including the treatment of U.S. citizens in Rumania and the restrictions which had been imposed on the functions, personnel, and activities of the American Legation in Bucharest.² As the Rumanian Government subsequently indicated that it was prepared to broaden the range of talks to include these problems, the U.S. Government has now stated that it is prepared to begin the talks in Bucharest on October 15, 1956.

The U.S. Government would be represented in the proposed talks by the American Minister to Rumania, Robert H. Thayer.

¹ Not printed here.

² BULLETIN of May 14, 1956, p. 801.

Education and the Peaceful Atom

by Willard F. Libby

Commissioner, U.S. Atomic Energy Commission¹

The invitation to speak to this distinguished group of deans and presidents of colleges and universities was received with personal pleasure. I am most happy to be with you to discuss some of the problems of education and training for the nuclear energy industry. Inasmuch as I have had almost 25 years of academic experience, I feel at home and among friends in a conference of this kind.

I have been requested to discuss some of the problems of education and training of scientists and engineers. I have been asked to outline especially the broad policy of the Atomic Energy Commission in assisting our colleges and universities to establish curricula in atomic energy and the general types of assistance that the Commission proposes to offer to the schools of our Nation.

I do not propose to discuss in all its administrative details the Commission's program of educational and training assistance to our colleges and universities. This subject is being carefully and extensively presented to you by others more conversant than I with all its many facets. I propose to address myself to the fundamental problem which has caused this conference to be convened—the shortage of technical and scientific manpower in this country, especially the shortage of scientists and technicians trained in nuclear energy.

You, as well as I, consider the shortage of adequately trained manpower a matter of serious concern to the Nation. It is being discussed through all the media of mass communication. America's multitudinous forums of public opinion are at work on the important task of searching for an

answer to the problems of education in a free society. There have been a number of bills introduced into the Congress, each aimed at solving the educational problems of our scientific and engineering manpower shortage.

I believe the Nation will find that there are many answers to the question, rather than a single cure-all. My recommendation here is *balance*—balance in the encouragement of orderly and determined efforts on the part of all concerned to increase the output and improve the quality of scientists and engineers capable of contributing to the development of the peaceful uses of the atom.

It appears that the responsibility for these necessary changes rests primarily with the leaders, such as you, in our colleges and universities as well as the engineering professions in industry. The acuteness of the problem is widely recognized, but it is not clear that the methods of solving the problem have been fully exploited. It may be difficult for you to believe and accept the fact that you are more vitally important to our Nation today than ever before. Your role as educators has taken on new importance. By virtue of the technological revolution of our age, in addition to your responsibility of teaching young Americans the fundamentals of democracy it is now incumbent upon you to give our youth the most competent technical training you can so that our democracy may have the materials, the tools, and the knowledge it must have to survive.

Statistics on Engineering Graduates

I am sure you are all aware of the declining numbers of graduating scientists and engineers. The number of engineering graduates in 1954 was less than half the number of engineering gradu-

¹ Address made before the Deans' Conference on Engineering Education and Nuclear Science at Oak Ridge, Tenn., on Sept. 7.

ates in 1950. These are data published in your *Journal of the American Society of Engineering Education*. I wonder, however, if you have considered the rate of engineering graduates based upon population. I find these data illuminating, especially when compared with known statistics for Great Britain and estimated statistics for the Soviet Union. I offer the following comparative data for the graduating classes of engineers for 1954 in Great Britain, the United States, and the U.S.S.R.:

Great Britain graduated 57 engineers per million of population.

The United States graduated 136 engineers per million of population.

The U.S.S.R. graduated 280 engineers per million of population.

The available data for Russia also reveal that the U.S.S.R. is graduating an additional 326 lower-grade engineers per million of population. These data give some indication of the tremendous strides that Russia has made in her state-controlled policy of education. Although the population of Russia is only approximately one-third greater than that of the United States, she is graduating more than twice as many engineers as we are here in the United States.

There is no doubt that the technical race is on, but we must remember that the prizes in any technical race will not necessarily go to those countries with the largest population. Only those countries with the best systems of education will win the prizes.

American scientists and engineers are doing brilliant work—witness the discovery early this summer of Fermi's particle, the neutrino, that this man of genius hypothesized some 20 years ago; witness, also, the *Nautilus*, which establishes new records every time she quits her moorings and which is hailed as the forerunner of our all-atomic-powered Navy of tomorrow.

But shall we continue to win such prizes? If we are to continue to make important new discoveries and to get the full benefit of the new knowledge we are acquiring, we shall need more scientists and engineers and technicians. And we shall need more than numbers. We shall need more scientists and engineers and technicians with better and more versatile training. Trained manpower—not money, not uranium—is the single

most important limiting factor for the future in the peaceful application of atomic energy.

Shortage of Nuclear Scientists

While the general shortage of scientists and engineers is of foremost concern today, the shortage of specialists in nuclear science and engineering will become more acute with time. The demand for nuclear scientists and engineers will manifest itself more and more as the peaceful applications of atomic energy develop, and especially as we gain ground toward the achievement of economically competitive electricity from nuclear energy.

It is extremely difficult to make estimates and predictions without supporting data, or data upon which, at least, extrapolations can be performed. We are, however, faced with this dilemma when we attempt to predict and forecast the numbers of scientists and engineers that are and will be needed for an atomic energy power industry of the future. Some predictions have been made, and, if they have any meaning, they indicate that we shall soon need specialized nuclear training for as many as 2,000 scientists and engineers per year. At the present rate of graduation of engineers from our colleges and universities, this would be 10 percent of all students receiving engineering degrees each year. Estimates are that we shall be graduating some 40,000 engineers per year by 1965, and even at this rate the demands for the nuclear energy industry amount to somewhere between 5 percent and 10 percent of graduating engineers. If we take into account the needs of atomic energy and add the needs of all the other technological fields, we foresee that the numbers of scientifically trained men and women required will represent a considerable increase over our present rate of scholastic production.

The task of training these large numbers is a tremendous one. The methods and tools will vary, but it is a task which will fall to the universities. Unless the universities learn to do this job quickly, we may find that the United States, rather than being the technological superior of the world, may become an inferior nation. Because it takes time to fill the educational "pipeline," I have the feeling that the situation may become worse before it gets better.

Let me repeat, then, that the Commission's estimates indicate a need in the near future for

2,000 scientists and engineers per year with specialized training in nuclear energy technology. This, then, is the basis for the Commission's proposed assistance to our colleges and universities; that is, to offer assistance which will permit our colleges and universities to produce 2,000 graduate scientists and engineers per year with specialized training in nuclear energy techniques. We hope that this rate of production can be reached approximately by 1961. Without your cooperation this hope cannot become a reality.

Reasons for Trained Manpower Shortage

We should attempt to understand the reasons for the general shortage of trained manpower. Many factors have undoubtedly contributed to this shortage. Here are a few: a low birth rate during the depression years, the inadequacy of salaries for the best-qualified teachers of science and mathematics in the high schools, and the withdrawal of such teachers from the field of high school teaching, leaving the science and mathematics curricula in inadequately trained hands. There were also in the 1949-50 period some dire predictions by vocational advisers of an oversupply of trained scientists and engineers, which undoubtedly deflected untold numbers into other careers. We should not overlook the fact that the colleges and universities have sometimes done an inadequate job of instruction. These are by no means all of the reasons for our manpower shortage in science and engineering; they are but a sampling of various factors that have contributed to this situation in our country.

About 80 percent of our high school graduates do not receive baccalaureate degrees, and only about 2 percent of those judged mentally capable of obtaining Ph.D. degrees in any field do so. About one-fourth of our high school graduates with both grades in the top 20 percent of their classes and Army AGCT [Army General Classification Test] scores in excess of from 135 to 145 do not enter college. Such high school graduates are America's most wasted human resource today. And that group should provide the best hunting ground for talented scientific and engineering candidates for our colleges and universities.

We must improve the teaching of science and mathematics in the high schools by providing more qualified teachers and better teaching aids, through consolidation of schools to permit more

courses and by other remedies. We must take steps to break the vicious circle which has practically reduced the 3 R's to 2 R's, a dismal finding of a recent study by the Educational Testing Service at Princeton, N. J. I quote their sorry conclusions as to the status of mathematics in American schools today:

Future teachers pass through the elementary schools learning to detest mathematics. They drop it in high school as early as possible. They avoid it in teachers colleges because it is not required. They return to the elementary school to teach a new generation to detest it.

We must improve at the high school level the identification, motivation, and guidance of the better qualified students toward careers in science and engineering. We must increase the number of qualified students who go to college and encourage those with scientific and engineering aptitudes to pursue the courses in science and engineering in the new fields as well as the old. We must develop the incentives to retain highly qualified scientists and engineers in colleges and universities as future teachers. Parenthetically, if I may say so, the most effective of these incentives would be to raise the salaries.

We should also improve our utilization of scientists and engineers by providing technical assistance to relieve them of subprofessional assignments. We face an intense and rising demand for scientific and engineering manpower in all grades and disciplines of science, from the most brilliant graduate physicist or engineer to the most average technician and craftsman. Every scientist or engineer needs and relies on technicians and craftsmen to translate his plans into experimental models and working products. It would be lopsided—a great mistake—to increase the output of graduate scientists and engineers without adequately supporting them at the lower levels from which, in any event, many of them are drawn.

Improving Secondary Schools

The structure of our need can best be visualized as a pyramid. Much, therefore, depends upon strengthening the base of the pyramid by improving education in the secondary schools. In doing this, we also raise the number of secondary school graduates willing to take successfully the curricula offered in our scientific and engineering colleges and universities. This, then, is a plea to improve our high school educational system through in-

creased attention to mathematics and science training and to develop and expand our technical institute type of education. That the quality of secondary school education must be improved has been known to all of you for some time. It is obviously a great saving to colleges and universities not to have to teach their young students what they ought to have learned in the high school. Along with efforts to improve the quality of high school science and mathematics teaching, perhaps more stringent college entrance requirements in these subjects are indicated.

Versatility has been the aim of a classical education. Technical studies should lead to a similar versatility and should, therefore, be firmly grounded on the fundamentals of mathematics and science. It is much easier to adapt new ideas and new techniques when the principles on which they are based are already familiar to the student. The Commission is not advocating the separation of applied science and engineering on the one hand from the arts and pure sciences on the other. Its hope is the broadening of the programs of colleges and universities where science and engineering already flourish to include basic courses in nuclear energy. In this way facilities offered by the AEC for advanced nuclear energy technology in the colleges and universities can be expanded with a minimum loss of time and with the additional advantage of securing for students all the benefits of entering a technological industry in the making.

We of the AEC do not believe that new and separate departments of nuclear engineering should be created at the undergraduate level. We do believe that what the budding nuclear energy industry will most need is scientists and engineers trained in the conventional scientific and engineering disciplines, with additional and specialized training at the graduate level. The conventional scientists and engineers will need only to know how the normal practices in their conventional fields are modified by the presence of radiation and other special circumstances of a reactor.

The Commission is not an educational institution. It has no charter or mandate to serve as an educational institution. It does not propose to become an educational institution. In fact, it is willing and anxious to be relieved of its educational responsibilities. But it does believe it has a responsibility to assist the Nation's colleges and universities to initiate those educational programs

which will provide the trained manpower that is required for the nuclear energy industry.

The programs which the Commission is operating, and proposes to operate, have as objectives (1) partially fulfilling the Commission's manpower requirements in nuclear energy technology, (2) assisting colleges and universities in filling their expected and rightful roles in nuclear energy education and training, and (3) filling temporary gaps in the Nation's industrial requirements for trained personnel.

Nuclear Reactors

One of the more spectacular forms of assistance the Commission is giving colleges and universities in preparing to meet their responsibilities in nuclear energy education is in the acquisition of the specialized facilities, such as reactors, that are necessary. Because I am fearful that some of you may have overly hopeful opinions of their value as training media, I shall take a few minutes to discuss nuclear reactors as educational and research tools.

It is not necessary that every college and university have a research reactor to do good teaching and training, nor is it always wise to set initial reactor objectives so high as to exclude other valuable teaching aids from nuclear curricula. The usual research reactor suffers as an educational tool—it is *too good*. The primary purpose of a research reactor is the production of neutrons or other radioactive materials in large quantities at relatively low cost. This capability, therefore, permits the conduct of many simultaneous investigations, which in turn makes it almost mandatory that an institution owning a research reactor develop and maintain a supporting research program.

Once an institution has developed a large-scale research program, however, the operating time of the reactor becomes too valuable to be used primarily as an instructional device. The research workers will not permit the reactor to be shut down or started to suit the teaching schedule of an instructor, nor would they approve of the idea that students be permitted to disassemble the reactor to see how its gizzard and liver were functioning or how the various parts were put together. To shut down and start up a large research reactor would be a serious interruption of relatively longtime experiments.

I am not saying that a research reactor is not a valuable and important adjunct to a university's facilities or that research reactors are not useful teaching tools. They are useful tools. Rather, what I am saying is that a research reactor is not necessarily the *best possible* teaching tool. I am not sure which type of reactor is best from a pedagogical standpoint, but I do know that in view of the rapidly changing complexion of the atomic energy industry, its many new directions and techniques, research reactors as we know them today are not the complete answer to our pedagogical needs.

Reactors come in many varieties and sizes, and each one is designed for fairly specialized functions. Large reactors with high flux and very limited or no experimental facilities are designed for the production of electrical energy. At Shippingport, Pa., the Commission is presently building a 60,000-kilowatt nuclear generating plant. This facility will cost about \$107 million. Other power reactors are in various stages of planning or construction. Their use as training devices or as research facilities would be wasteful of materials and beyond the capabilities of even the largest university.

For advanced radiation-damage studies, a reactor similar to the AEC's \$17-million materials testing reactor in Idaho could be used. In this type of work the experimenter needs a high neutron flux; this means high specific power, which necessitates relatively large facilities. Such a reactor, in turn, requires a large staff of operators and a large research and development program. Again, such a reactor and its accompanying program appear to be beyond the capabilities of most universities to support.

If a school is interested in basic research in the biological and physical sciences, a reactor similar to the CP-5 reactor at the Argonne National Laboratory could be used. Such a reactor is versatile, not unduly expensive, and well within the capabilities of a number of universities. I say "not unduly expensive" because we have learned to think astronomically, and this thinking carries over to the budget. A price tag of between \$1 million and \$2 million for a versatile research reactor no longer staggers us. The only drawbacks to such a device, if we exclude the cost, are the factors I mentioned earlier. To utilize a research reactor effectively, a large research program is

necessary, and consequently the teaching uses are limited.

Because of these factors I find myself quite partial to a device such as the subcritical assembly. This is a device that is inherently safe, low in costs—in the atomic scheme of things—and capable of demonstrating almost all the basic phenomena associated with reactors. The only device I am familiar with that even *seems* to offer more apparent advantages for teaching purposes is the training reactor called the Argonaut, which has been designed and constructed at the International School of Nuclear Science and Engineering at Argonne. The Commission is prepared to assist the colleges and universities in securing these types of reactor training tools. The Commission does not believe that large nuclear energy *power* reactors are either required or desirable as teaching and training devices.

Areas for Use of Peaceful Atom

I now wish to discuss briefly three areas in which the peaceful and friendly atom can be used. These are radiation, isotopes, and generation of power.

The peaceful uses of atomic radiation now known consist essentially of three types: the sterilization or pasteurization of foods, the induction of chemical reactions, and genetic mutations. The tests on the efficacy of gamma radiation in sterilizing foods continue to be promising. There is every indication that this type of food processing will become practical and important. It may very well reduce the necessity for refrigeration to preserve foodstuffs and become a new industry of the future.

Another of the more striking peaceful uses is the induction of mutations in plants by radiation of seeds. The limiting factor in mutation studies of the past has been the slow rate of natural mutations. The contribution of the atom to this problem is, of course, that it can increase the mutation rate enormously, by factors of a thousand or more.

The induction of polymerization reactions by radiation is a potentially important peaceful use in itself, for the polymers made in this way differ appreciably from those produced by the chemically induced polymerizations. Furthermore, types of polymer reactions which could not previously be produced by chemical induction are now possible. This is a very important potential con-

tribution to the chemical industry. It is too early to assess the overall significance of this development, but it is becoming clear that it is quite valuable. It is interesting to note that the fission products, which have been a nuisance and a byproduct of atomic fission, may have some real value because of the possible usefulness of radiation in this way.

I shall only briefly mention the use and application of isotopes in industry and agriculture. The returns from the utilization of isotopes in these fields of endeavor alone already indicate that the American people may expect a sound financial return from their investment of some \$15 billion in the Atomic Energy Commission's farflung properties.

Because you are primarily engineers, or concerned with engineering subjects, you are probably more interested in the third type of peaceful use of the atom—the possibilities of the production of power. Atomic power, we all know, has yet to be obtained in economic form. However, the generation of economic electrical power from atomic energy is the hope of the whole world, and we believe it will be realized.

There are various types of atomic power plants and various systems proposed for the conversion of heat from atomic fission into electrical energy. There are reactor types in which U-235 is simply burned and the fission energy utilized. This is the type installed in the submarine *Nautilus*.

A second type of atomic power plant is one in which U-235 is burned but, at the same time, some Pu-239 is manufactured. This type of reactor, in principle, extends the amount of atomic fuel, for the plutonium is itself fissionable and a potential source of atomic power.

A third type of atomic power plant is the so-called "fast breeder," in which the neutrons which are produced by fission reactions are not allowed to lose energy by collision with graphite or heavy water but are reacted in their energetic state with U-238. Because of the energy the neutrons are able to produce Pu-239 in sufficient yield so that more fissionable material is produced from the uranium 238 or the thorium present in the reactor than is consumed.

This concept has been established experimentally. If we can prove the feasibility of an economic, fast-breeder power plant, we can say that the amount of atomic power reserves is potentially inexhaustible.

Atomic power has perhaps come 15 years too early for the United States. I say this because we have at present sufficient coal and petroleum reserves, and we are not in real need of a new source of energy for our industrial empire. This is not the case with other countries, however. Great Britain needs power urgently *today* and is pushing hard to attain it. In a few weeks Britain's first dual-purpose reactor—a producer of both plutonium and electric power—will be dedicated, and other power plants are scheduled to be in operation within the near future. Russia, too, is developing power reactors but, like the United States, is not in urgent need of atomic power today. Her incentive in developing large electrical generation plants is the desire for the technological supremacy of the world, with doubtlessly underlying political motivation. It becomes clear, then, that atomic power is on the verge of becoming a reality and that we in the United States must develop it as quickly as is prudent.

A Prudent Course

What constitutes a prudent course? The known advantages, the known opportunities, and the development of all of the discoveries and facts of the future should govern our rate of progress. On the fast-breeder reactor, for example, we are essentially in the pilot-plant stage. In the enriched-fuel type of reactor we are out of the experimental stage in that the *Nautilus* is a reality and has led to the planning of atomic-powered surface ships.

Prudence also consists in the vigorous support of the investigation of basic and essential questions, and readiness to follow through the necessary development of power plants when they appear feasible. We cannot, however, proceed merely with the appropriation of large sums of money and the construction of enormous installations, on a crash basis, to force the secrets out of nature and to make enterprises work which depend fundamentally on an understanding of natural phenomena.

Let me now summarize what I have been saying. The general shortage of scientists and engineers is the limiting factor in expanding our scientific programs today. This will be with us for many years to come. The immediate problem in atomic energy is the lack of trained faculty and of adequate equipment and facilities at universities.

The Atomic Energy Commission, as I have said, is playing a part in alleviating these shortcomings and proposes to do more in the future. Eventually, the Commission's emergency programs in this area will decrease as the colleges and universities develop the capabilities to assume more of this load. This is as it should be.

We conceive our primary goal to be, as President Eisenhower said in his December 8, 1953, message: "To the making of these fateful decisions, the United States pledges before you—and therefore before the world—its determination to help solve the fearful atomic dilemma—to devote its entire heart and mind to find the way by which the miraculous inventiveness of man shall not be dedicated to his death, but consecrated to his life."

All of us—scientists, citizens, and statesmen—look to you, the educators, and to the American educational system, from the universities down to the elementary schools, to make this thought come true. It is *not* a dream; it is the American way of life.

Japanese Atomic Experts To Study in U.S.

The International Cooperation Administration announced on September 5 that 12 Japanese atomic policy experts would arrive in San Francisco on September 9 to begin a 3-week study of industrial uses of atomic energy in the United States, with particular emphasis on power development. The study program was developed by the International Cooperation Administration and the Japanese Government's Atomic Energy Bureau of the Prime Minister's Office.

The 12-man group, designated as the Atomic Energy Policy Study Team, includes 6 members of the National Diet, 2 staff members of the Atomic Energy Bureau, a representative of the Atomic Energy Research Institute, and 3 electric power company executives.

The Japanese will study the present development of, and future plans for, use of atomic power in the United States; cooperation between government and industry in this field; the present situation and future prospects of atomic-power ships; the use of isotopes in industry; and systems of safety controls used in operating reactors and in the handling of radioactive materials.

In the Far West, the team is to inspect the General Electric Company's power equipment department at San José, Calif.; the Atomics International Division of the North American Aviation Company, the Sodium Reactor Experiment, and the Kinetic Experimental Water Boiler—all in the Santa Susanna area of California; and the Materials Testing Reactor at the National Reactor Testing Station at Arco, Idaho.

In the Middle West, the team will visit the Argonne National Laboratory near Chicago and the Detroit Edison Company and Atomic Power Associates in Detroit. At Ann Arbor, Mich., they will inspect the University of Michigan power reactor. Arrangements have been made for them to participate in a meeting with the Atomic Industrial Forum in Chicago and to visit the Forum's exposition there.

In the East, they will visit the power reactor and other facilities of the Atomic Energy Commission and the Duquesne Power and Light Company at Shippingport, Pa., and the Brookhaven National Laboratory at Upton, N.Y.; attend the International Atomic Energy Agency Conference at U.N. Headquarters; and visit the Health and Safety Laboratory of the Atomic Energy Commission in New York. Winding up their coast-to-coast trip in Washington, D.C., on September 28 and 29, they will confer with officials of various Federal Government agencies including the Department of State, Atomic Energy Commission, and Ica.

Visit of French Parliamentary Group

Press release 459 dated August 30

A party of 21 members of the French Parliament, a parliamentary secretary, and two French journalists is expected to arrive in New York from France by air on September 11 for a 17-day visit in the United States under the International Educational Exchange Program of the Department of State. Fourteen members of the group are Deputies in the French National Assembly and seven are Senators in the Council of the Republic. They have been invited to make firsthand observations of this country and to exchange ideas with American officials and private citizens whom they will meet during their tour, which will take them as far south as New Orleans and as far west as San Francisco.

The group will spend 2 days in New York,

during which time they will visit United Nations Headquarters and the Brookhaven National Laboratory. They will depart on September 12 for Washington, where they will stay until September 15.

While in the Capital the visitors will be received by officials of the executive branch of the Federal Government and will meet with members of both Houses of Congress.

The itinerary of the French legislators also includes visits to New Orleans (September 15-17), San Francisco (September 19-23), Chicago (September 24-25), and Minneapolis (September 26-27). A side trip to the Grand Canyon on September 18 has also been scheduled. They will return to New York on September 27 and depart from there the following day for Paris.

The group will be accompanied during their tour of the United States by several escort officers headed by Leslie S. Brady, former public-affairs officer at the American Embassy in Paris.

The following are expected to participate in the tour:

Members of the National Assembly

Pierre Abelin, former Secretary of State to Premier Robert Schuman, later serving as Secretary of State for Finance and Secretary of State for Economic Affairs and member of the French delegation to the United Nations General Assembly.

Edmond Barrachin, President of the National Committee for the Study of Constitutional Reform, Vice-President of the parliamentary France-United States friendship group, and former Minister of State charged with constitutional reform.

Edouard Bonnefous, former President of the National Assembly's Foreign Affairs Committee, Minister of Commerce, Minister of State, Minister of Post Offices, Telegraph, and Telephones and present French delegate to the United Nations; Vice-President of the parliamentary France-United States friendship group.

Patrice Brocas, member of the *Conseil d'Etat*, instructor at the Institute of Political Studies, Vice-President of the National Assembly's Interior Committee, and member of its Committee on Industrial Production and Energy.

Max Brusset, Mayor of Royan and Vice-President of the National Assembly's Press Commission.

Arthur Conte, newspaperman, novelist, biographer, and international political affairs editor of *L'Indépendant* of Perpignan; Mayor of Salses.

Edouard Corniglion-Molinier, Reserve General of the French Air Force; commanded French Air Force in the Middle East (1941), in Great Britain (1943), and in the Atlantic (1944); formerly served as Senator, Minister of State in charge of economic planning and Minister of Public Works, Transport, and Tourism; Vice-Presi-

dent of the parliamentary France-United States friendship group.

Joannes Dupraz, newspaperman; formerly served as Secretary General of the Ministry of Information, Secretary of State for the Navy, and Secretary of State to Premier René Mayer.

Félix Gaillard, head of the French delegation to the Brussels meeting on EURATOM; formerly served as Secretary of State to Premiers Plevin and Mayer, Secretary of State for Finance, and chairman of the National Assembly's Atomic Energy Committee.

Valéry Giscard d'Estaing, Career Inspector of Finance; former deputy director of the staff of Premier Faure, working under him on Premier Mendès-France's economic reform program.

Pierre-Olivier Lapie, Vice-President of the National Assembly and member of its Foreign Affairs Committee; National Assembly's representative to the Common Assembly of the European Coal and Steel Community and a member of its Commission for the Common Market; former director of political affairs on the staff of General Charles de Gaulle; also served as Under Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs in 1946 under Léon Blum government and Minister of Education under Plevin and Queuille governments.

Jean Le Bail, former professor; editorial writer for the Limoges daily *Le Populaire du Centre*; representative of the National Assembly at the Council of Europe.

Aimé Paquet, Mayor of Saint-Vincent-de-Mercuze and member of the National Assembly's Finance Committee.

Pierre Pflimlin, National President of the Popular Republican Movement (MRP); formerly served as Under Secretary of State for Public Health, Under Secretary of State for National Economic Relations, Minister of State in charge of Council of Europe Affairs, Minister of State for Overseas France, and Minister of Finance and Economic Affairs. Was Premier-designate in February 1955.

Members of the Council of the Republic

Jean Berthoin, former Secretary General of the Ministry of Interior, Secretary of State for the Interior, Rapporteur of the Senate Finance Committee, and Minister of National Education.

René Blondelle, President of the Chamber of Agriculture of the Aisne Department and Honorary President of the National Federation of Farm Operators' Associations.

Roger Duchet, Secretary General of the Independent Republican and Peasant Group, political director of the weekly *France Indépendante*, and Mayor of Baune; formerly served as Secretary of State for Public Works, Transport, and Tourism, Minister of Post Offices, Telegraph, and Telephones, and Minister of Reconstruction and Housing.

Edmond Michelet, former Deputy; Minister for the Armed Forces under former governments; sponsor of a recently created French Union Movement to promote closer cultural and social relations between France and French territories.

Léon Motais de Narbonne, President of an interministerial commission to coordinate the repatriation and re-establishment in France of French citizens from Indochina.

Alex Roubert, President of the Senate's Socialist group and of the Senate's Finance Committee.

Mme. Jacqueline Thome-Patenotre, Mayor of Rambouillet; member of the Council for Low-Cost Housing and of the Senate's Reconstruction Committee; President of the parliamentary France-United States friendship group; Vice-President of the European Federalist Movement; author of Senate resolution in 1947 expressing gratitude for the "Friendship Train."

Parliamentary Secretary

Stanley Campbell, Secretary of the parliamentary France-United States friendship group of the Senate since 1947.

Journalists

Marcel Joseph Gabilly, journalist with *Le Figaro*; Vice-President of French journalists' labor union.

Raymond Magne, editor-in-chief of the Paris weekly *Carrefour* and Managing Editor of the daily *Le Parisien-Libéré*.

The Challenge of Refugee Relief

Following is the text of remarks made by Mrs. Dorothy D. Houghton at Geneva, Switzerland, on September 3 on the occasion of her acceptance of the Nansen Medal for 1956, together with a message sent by U.N. Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld.

The Nansen Medal, named for the late Dr. Fridtjof Nansen of Norway, was instituted in 1954 by the U.N. High Commissioner for Refugees and is awarded annually for outstanding merit in the field of work on behalf of refugees. Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt received the award in 1954 and Queen Juliana of the Netherlands in 1955.

Mrs. Houghton, former Deputy Director of the International Cooperation Administration, is a member of the Public Advisory Committee of the Refugee Relief Program of the Department of State. The award was presented to Mrs. Houghton by James M. Read, U.N. Deputy High Commissioner for Refugees.

REMARKS BY MRS. HOUGHTON

In humility, I accept this distinguished award, the Nansen Medal, named in honor of a great humanitarian, bestowed in recognition of service to refugees. I cannot accept so great an honor for myself alone, but only in behalf of my own devoted staff during my 3 years as Director of the Office of Refugees, Migration, and Voluntary As-

sistance of the Foreign Operations Administration of the United States Government. At the same time, I would include the hundreds and hundreds of devoted men and women serving with the United Nations, intergovernmental organizations, and United States agencies, through all of which I have assisted in the refugee programs.

I am profoundly grateful that the opportunity was given me to take part in an undertaking of such worldwide dimensions, of such humanitarian worth, and of transcendent importance to the lives and spirits of so many people. This medal, bearing the honored name of Dr. Nansen, will serve not only as a memorial to his great deeds but also as a reminder of the tasks which remain to be finished. There is still much work ahead. There exists today—perhaps now more than ever before—a need for positive action. The subtle threat of the Communist redefection program is a challenge that must be met by the free nations of the world. With God's help, and with human devotion to this great cause, we can—and we must—meet that challenge.

To me, my 5 years of work for, and among, the world's homeless millions of men, women, and children have given me gratification beyond anything else I have ever done. To feel that I have had a small part in alleviating their plight has been a heart-warming experience, adding new purpose to my own life. In helping them, I have helped myself. In knowing them, I have learned much. In carrying out this work, I have touched the very core of life itself—compassion for one's fellow being.

That compassion had its roots in my first contact with refugees in a European camp. It grew and grew as I came to know many more of these forlorn people, victims of the aftermath of war, of tyranny and persecution; victims through no fault of theirs but mostly by the mere accident of their birthplaces. They were so lonely, so bereaved, without a country, denied the wonderful human warmth of being needed, tortured with memories of loved ones left behind—behind the Iron Curtain.

I came to know that these people loved freedom as we love it, that they were fine and courageous. They had given up their homes, their possessions, sometimes even members of their families, because they could not endure to live in lands where they were enslaved in both mind and body.

The tremendous problem of the refugees was too

big for any one nation. And finally the whole free world began to realize its international proportions. Our family of free nations drew closely together to help solve this problem, to shelter and sustain these distressed people, to arrange for their resettlement, and to offer them new homelands in our various countries.

As an American, I am especially proud of the vital part my own country has taken in this great cooperative effort toward a permanent solution of the refugee problem. It was my privilege to direct the United States Escapee Program, which has cared for some 50,000 homeless people to date.¹ It was also my privilege to serve as a delegate of my country to the Intergovernmental Committee for European Migration and to cooperate in the United Nations program under the inspired leadership of the late Dr. van Heuven Goedhart. I am deeply grateful for having been given these privileges.

But I must say—and I say it sadly—that our work in behalf of homeless people is far from done. At times I am led against my every emotion to wonder whether the good we do can ever overcome the problems stemming from evil forces which are plaguing this world. But that doubt has not—and it must not—breed discouragement. It must continue to inspire the best in us. It must, as it has in the difficult past, lead us to give of ourselves and our resources in ever-increasing measure for the banishment of human misery.

I should like to add my own personal tribute to the late Dr. van Heuven Goedhart, whose leadership as United Nations High Commissioner was an inspiration to all of us. He was an unforgettable man of great energy whose understanding heart went out to the refugees and drove him ever onward in his efforts to relieve their unhappy situation. His warm spirit is with us always. His works in behalf of his fellow men will stand as an enduring monument. In his memory, let us here today rededicate ourselves to carrying on the work in which he had so great a part: the task of restoring well-being and human dignity and a homeland of their own to homeless people throughout the world, so they may live again in the sunlight of God's grace.

I also want to pay my respects to the two distinguished and beloved women who have previ-

¹ For an article on the Escapee Program by Mrs. Houghton, see *BULLETIN* of Mar. 14, 1955, p. 415.

ously received the Nansen Medal: Queen Juliana of the Netherlands, whose devotion to the cause of refugees has been a warm and wonderful thing to see; and Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt, of my own country, statesman and humanitarian, who has done so much for so many, giving abundantly of herself to this great cause. I am honored indeed to be—even for these few minutes—in the category of greatness occupied by these inspired women.

In closing, I also want to pay tribute to the late Dr. Fridtjof Nansen, the distinguished Norwegian humanitarian, to whom the Nansen Medal is a continuing memorial. In his great refugee-aid program for the League of Nations after World War I, he blazed a trail which we have been privileged to follow. If we follow always in his footsteps, we cannot fail in the great task which lies before us.

MESSAGE FROM MR. HAMMARSKJOLD

On the occasion of the Nansen award ceremony last year, I paid tribute to the memory of Fridtjof Nansen and to his great work on behalf of refugees. In the same spirit I wish now to pay tribute to the late U.N. High Commissioner for Refugees. Two years ago Dr. van Heuven Goedhart instituted the Nansen Medal. His purpose was not only to revive the name of a humanitarian but also to honor others whose efforts bring justice to people uprooted by war. But no one was more worthy of this recognition than Dr. van Heuven Goedhart himself, a man who believed he must give and expect no return.

At the same time, on behalf of the United Nations, I wish to congratulate Mrs. Dorothy D. Houghton, who has been awarded the Nansen Medal for 1956. As a government official and as a private citizen, she has made a distinguished contribution in alleviating the plight of refugees. In serving so well the cause of refugees, she has also served the cause of peace.

Commodity Agreement With India

Press release 454 dated August 29

India signed an agreement with the United States at New Delhi on August 29 to purchase \$360,100,000 worth of U.S. agricultural surplus commodities over a 3-year period. The agree-

ment, signed under title I of U. S. Public Law 480, is the largest concluded with any country and calls for the sale to India over a 3-year period of approximately 3.5 million metric tons of wheat, 500,000 bales of cotton, \$3,500,000 of dairy products, 6,000,000 pounds of tobacco, and, over a 1-year period, 200,000 metric tons of rice.

The Indian Government has agreed to pay for these purchases in local currency. The rupees generated by these sales will be used for purposes beneficial to both the United States and India, and these benefits will accrue for years to come. The rupees will help pay many U.S. obligations in India and will be used for agricultural market development and other U.S. purposes. A substantial portion of the local currency will be loaned back to the Government of India for economic development projects, and additional rupees will be made available on a grant basis to India for the same purposes.

India, through its purchases of these agricultural commodities, will be able to build up reserves to protect her people against possible future famines caused by natural disasters, to offset inflationary trends which may arise, and to acquire additional economic strength.

In concluding the agreement, India has given the United States specific assurances that she will maintain her normal imports of agricultural commodities from other free-world countries.

Modification of Restrictions on Imports of Peanuts

WHITE HOUSE ANNOUNCEMENT

White House press release dated August 29

The President on August 29 issued a proclamation permitting large-variety, Virginia-type peanuts to be brought into the country until the close of business on September 10, 1956.

The President acted pursuant to a unanimous recommendation from the U.S. Tariff Commission.¹ The Commission found a shortage of large Virginia-type peanuts resulting from hurricane damage to domestic crops a year ago. The President's action is designed to bridge the gap until the

¹ Copies of the report, which was sent to the President on Aug. 16, may be obtained from the U.S. Tariff Commission, Washington 25, D.C.

1956 domestic crop is available. (The established annual quota of 1,709,000 pounds was filled on August 1, the first day of the 1956-57 quota year.)

The new imports, whether brought across the border or withdrawn from bonded warehouse, will be subject to a fee of 7 cents per pound, but not more than 50 percent ad valorem in addition to the basic duty of 7 cents per pound.

The additional fee is designed to make the entered cost of the foreign peanuts roughly equivalent to current domestic prices and, thus, to eliminate possible windfall profits and to protect the Government's peanut program by insuring that only so many peanuts will be imported as are temporarily needed.

The President accepted the Tariff Commission's recommendation with one modification. The Commission recommended that the period for additional imports be 30 days in length, but in no event later than the close of business on September 28, 1956. The President's proclamation permits additional imports only through the close of business on September 10.

The President's proclamation extends only to shelled peanuts that are not blanched, salted, prepared, or preserved, and is limited to peanuts averaging in representative samples not more than 40 kernels per ounce.

The U.S. Tariff Commission's investigation and report to the President were made pursuant to section 22 of the Agricultural Adjustment Act, as amended.

Proclamation 3152²

WHEREAS, pursuant to section 22 of the Agricultural Adjustment Act, as amended (7 U.S.C. 624), I issued Proclamation No. 3019³ on June 8, 1953 (67 Stat. C 46), limiting to 1,709,000 pounds (aggregate quantity) the imports of peanuts, whether shelled, not shelled, blanched, salted, prepared, or preserved (including roasted peanuts, but not including peanut butter) which may be entered, or withdrawn from warehouse, for consumption in any 12-month period beginning July 1 in any year, which proclamation was amended by Proclamation No. 3025⁴ of June 30, 1953 (67 Stat. C 54) and by Proclamation No. 3095⁵ of May 16, 1955 (69 Stat. C 32);

WHEREAS the said Proclamation No. 3095 amended the said Proclamation No. 3019 so as to establish thereafter

² 21 Fed. Reg. 6595.

³ BULLETIN of June 29, 1953, p. 919.

⁴ Ibid., July 13, 1953, p. 62.

⁵ Ibid., June 20, 1955, p. 1005.

as the quota year for peanuts the 12-month period beginning August 1 in any year;

WHEREAS the total quantity of such peanuts which may be entered, or withdrawn from warehouse, for consumption under the said Proclamation No. 3019, as amended, during the 12-month period beginning August 1, 1956 has already been entered, or withdrawn from warehouse, for consumption;

WHEREAS, pursuant to section 22 (d) of the Agricultural Adjustment Act, as amended, the United States Tariff Commission has made a supplemental investigation to determine whether there is a deficit in the domestic supply of Virginia-type peanuts, shelled (not including peanuts blanched, salted, prepared, or preserved), of sizes averaging in representative samples not more than 40 kernels per ounce, such as to require an increase in the quantity of such peanuts which may be permitted to be entered, or withdrawn from warehouse, for consumption during the early part of the quota year beginning August 1, 1956, to meet essential requirements of domestic users of such peanuts, and, if so, what additional quantity or quantities of such peanuts may be permitted to be so entered or withdrawn without materially interfering with or rendering ineffective the program of the Department of Agriculture with respect to peanuts;

WHEREAS the United States Tariff Commission has submitted to me a report of its findings and recommendation in connection with the said supplemental investigation; and

WHEREAS, on the basis of said supplemental investigation and report of the Tariff Commission, I find that the domestic supply of Virginia-type peanuts is not sufficient to meet the essential requirements of domestic users of such peanuts and that such deficit may be permitted to be supplied from peanuts of foreign origin, but only under the conditions and subject to the fee hereinafter proclaimed, without rendering or tending to render ineffective, or materially interfering with, the said program of the Department of Agriculture with respect to peanuts, or reducing substantially the amount of any product processed in the United States from peanuts with respect to which such program is being undertaken:

NOW, THEREFORE, I, DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER, President of the United States of America, acting under and by virtue of the authority vested in me by the said section 22 of the Agricultural Adjustment Act, as amended, do hereby proclaim that the said Proclamation No. 3019, as amended, is hereby modified so as to permit an unlimited quantity of peanuts of the Virginia type, shelled (not including peanuts blanched, salted, prepared, or preserved), of sizes averaging in representative samples not more than 40 kernels per ounce, to be entered, or withdrawn from warehouse, for consumption during the period beginning on the day following the date of this proclamation and ending at the close of business on September 10, 1956, subject to a fee of 7 cents per pound, but no more than 50 per centum *ad valorem*: *Provided*, That the said fee shall be in addition to any other duties imposed on the importation of such peanuts.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States of America to be affixed.

DONE at the City of Washington this twenty-
[SEAL] ninth day of August in the year of our Lord
nineteen hundred and fifty-six, and of the Independence of the United States of America the one hundred and eighty-first.

Dwight D. Eisenhower

By the President:

JOHN FOSTER DULLES

Secretary of State

Booklet Outlines Policies of International Finance Corporation

The International Finance Corporation, the new affiliate of the World Bank, on September 6 announced the publication of a booklet outlining its operating policies and procedures. The purpose of the booklet is to inform the world financial and industrial community about the types of investment which the Corporation is interested in making and about the information required from enterprises wishing to attract the investment of Ifc funds.

The booklet opens with a short introductory message from the president of the International Finance Corporation, Robert L. Garner. Mr. Garner points to the unique character of the new Corporation "as a public international organization supported by a substantial number of governments to further economic development by promoting the spread of private enterprise in the developing areas of the world."

The types of investment which will be eligible for Ifc financing are then described. They will be restricted to private enterprises principally in the less developed regions and will be made in association with private investors from the industrial countries and also from the less developed regions. The minimum investment proposal Ifc will normally entertain will be of at least \$100,000 out of a minimum total investment required of \$500,000. The Corporation intends to concentrate on industrial investment in its early years.

The second section of the booklet describes the forms and methods of financing which Ifc will utilize, stressing that its investments will not normally consist of conventional fixed-interest loans but will be on a basis approximating venture capital. The Corporation will expect to obtain financial results appropriate to the type of invest-

ment and also securities or contractual rights (e. g., rights to subscribe to capital stock or shares or to convert the investment into stocks or shares) of a character attractive to private investors. Ifc has no policy of uniform interest rates, and the usual terms of its investments will be from about 5 to 15 years. Ifc cannot itself undertake the management of enterprises and will therefore invest only in those for which its private partners can provide experienced and competent management.

Reference is also made in the booklet to relationships with the government of the country of investment. Ifc will not seek or expect a government guaranty of repayment of any of its investments, nor will it seek formal governmental approval of any financing except as such approval may be required by law. Ifc will not, however, make an investment in a member country against the wishes of its government.

Ifc's policy will be to revolve its funds by selling its investments to private investors when it can obtain a reasonable price for them. This policy is designed to achieve Ifc's objective of encouraging international private investment and also to provide the Corporation with funds for additional investments.

The booklet contains two schedules giving detailed advice on information which should accompany applications for an Ifc investment, either by an existing company or a new company.

The booklet is being published in English, French, German, and Spanish. Copies may be obtained from the International Finance Corporation, 1818 H Street NW., Washington, D. C., or from the Paris office of the World Bank at 67 rue de Lille, Paris (7e), France.

U.S. Contributes to UNICEF and U.N. Technical Assistance

U.S./U.N. press release 2449 dated August 27

Two checks totaling \$5,233,314, representing partial United States contributions to two United Nations programs, the Children's Fund and the Technical Assistance Program, were transmitted on August 27 to the United Nations by James J. Wadsworth, Deputy U.S. Representative to the United Nations.

The Technical Assistance Program received a check for \$4,000,000, representing the second U.S. payment for the calendar year 1956; an initial pay-

ment of \$6,000,000 was made on January 31. The United States has pledged \$15,500,000 to the Technical Assistance Program for 1956, subject to the limitation that this contribution shall not exceed 50 percent of the total contributed by all governments.

A check for \$1,233,314 was sent to Maurice Pate, Executive Director of the U.N. Children's Fund, representing the second payment on a 1956 U.S. pledge of \$9,700,000. The first payment, in the amount of \$1,508,807, was made on May 15. The U.S. contribution to the Children's Fund is subject to the limitation that the total contribution shall not exceed 57½ percent of all contributions to the UNICEF central fund.

WMO Designated as Public International Organization

WHITE HOUSE ANNOUNCEMENT

White House press release dated September 1

The President on September 1 issued an Executive order designating the World Meteorological Organization as a public international organization entitled to the benefits of the International Organizations Immunities Act of December 29, 1945.

The International Organizations Immunities Act provides that certain privileges, exemptions, and immunities shall be extended to such public international organizations as shall have been designated by the President through appropriate Executive order, and to their officers and employees and the representatives of the member states to such organizations.

The World Meteorological Organization (WMO), a specialized agency of the United Nations, is successor to the International Meteorological Organization established in 1879. The convention creating the World Meteorological Organization was signed at Washington, D.C., in 1947 and was ratified by the President on May 4, 1949, with the advice and consent of the Senate given on April 20, 1949. The United States has participated in the World Meteorological Organization since its establishment.

The basic objective of the World Meteorological Organization is to coordinate, standardize, and improve world meteorological activities and encourage an efficient exchange of meteorological in-


formation between countries. The Organization comprises a World Congress, which meets every 4 years; an Executive Committee, which meets annually; six regional associations; and several technical commissions dealing with meteorological applications to aeronautics, agriculture, hydrology, maritime commerce, and general problems in international exchanges, standardization of observations, and climatology.

A technical commission of Wmo, the Commission for Climatology, will hold its second session at Washington in January 1957. The designation of Wmo as a public international organization was made in view of the forthcoming meeting and of any future meetings which may be held in the United States.

EXECUTIVE ORDER 10676¹

By virtue of the authority vested in me by section 1 of the International Organizations Immunities Act, approved December 29, 1945 (59 Stat. 669), and having found that the United States participates in the World Meteorological Organization under the authority of the Convention of the World Meteorological Organization ratified by the President on May 4, 1949, with the advice and consent of the Senate given on April 20, 1949, I hereby designate the World Meteorological Organization as a public international organization entitled to enjoy the privileges, exemptions, and immunities conferred by the said International Organizations Immunities Act.

The designation of the World Meteorological Organization as a public international organization within the meaning of the said International Organizations Immunities Act is not intended to abridge in any respect privileges, exemptions, and immunities which such organization may have acquired or may acquire by treaty or congressional action.



THE WHITE HOUSE,
September 1, 1956.

U.S. Delegations to International Conferences

ILO Regional Conference

The Department of State announced on August 31 (press release 463) that the U.S. Government will be represented by the following tripartite delegation at the sixth regional conference of

¹ 21 Fed. Reg. 6625.

American States members of the International Labor Organization, to be convened at Habana, Cuba, September 3-15:

REPRESENTING THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES

Delegates

J. Ernest Wilkins, Assistant Secretary of Labor, *Chairman*
William Sanders, Deputy Chief of Mission, American Embassy, Santiago

Advisers

Fernando Sierra Berdecia, Secretary of Labor, Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, San Juan
John T. Fishburn, Office of Inter-American Regional Political Affairs, Bureau of Inter-American Affairs, Department of State
Leon Greenberg, Chief, Division of Productivity and Technological Developments, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor
Arnold Zempel, Executive Director, Office of International Labor Affairs, Department of Labor

REPRESENTING THE EMPLOYERS OF THE UNITED STATES

Delegate

A. Boyd Campbell, Chairman of the Board, Mississippi School Supply Company, Jackson, Miss.

Advisers

Mrs. Sybil S. Patterson, Director, Employee Relations Division, National Association of Manufacturers, New York, N.Y.
Frank Terrell, Terrell, Hess, and Magruder, Kansas City, Mo.
William G. Van Meter, Attorney, Labor Relations and Legal Department, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Washington, D.C.

REPRESENTING THE WORKERS OF THE UNITED STATES

Delegate

Joseph Keenan, Secretary, International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers, Washington, D.C.

Advisers

Paul K. Reed, Representative, United Mine Workers of America, Washington, D.C.
Serafino Romauldi, Latin-American Representative of the American Federation of Labor-Congress of Industrial Organizations, Washington, D.C.
Michael Ross, Assistant Director, Department of International Affairs, American Federation of Labor-Congress of Industrial Organizations, Washington, D.C.

Secretary of Delegation

John R. Bartelt, Office of International Conferences, Bureau of International Organization Affairs, Department of State

Twenty years ago the first American regional conference agreed that poverty and insecurity of livelihood, inadequate housing, and ignorance were among the greatest enemies of social progress and that the eradication of these conditions should be

the object of steady action on the part of the governments, employers, and workers of the countries of the region.

At Habana the first agenda topic, the report of the Director General of the ILO, will set forth the great changes and striking progress that have taken place in the Latin American region during the last two decades. The conference will also consider technical items which present specific problems in the current American setting. One of these is the role of employers and workers, both in their own spheres of responsibility and jointly, in programs to raise productivity. The broader question of labor-management relations will also be dealt with, and there will be discussion of the development and role of cooperatives in the American region.

FAO Council

The following delegation will represent the United States at the 25th session of the Council of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) opening at Rome on September 3:

United States Members

Ralph S. Roberts, Administrative Assistant Secretary of Agriculture

Alternate United States Members

Francis Deak, Counselor for Economic Affairs, American Embassy, Rome

Robert C. Tetro, Assistant Administrator, Foreign Agricultural Service, Department of Agriculture

Advisers

John H. Davis, Director, Moffett Program in Agriculture and Business, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University

Mrs. Ursula H. Duffus, Office of International Economic and Social Affairs, Department of State

Dale E. Farringer, International Organizations Officer, Foreign Agricultural Service, Department of Agriculture

W. Raymond Ogg, Agricultural Attaché, American Embassy, Rome

Walter W. Sohl, Second Secretary, American Embassy, Rome

Conference on Statute of Atomic Energy Agency

The Department of State announced on September 6 (press release 470) that the U.S. Government will be represented at the Conference on the Statute of the International Atomic Energy Agency, scheduled to convene at U.N. Headquarters

at New York on September 20, by the following delegation:

U.S. Representative and Chairman

James J. Wadsworth, Deputy U.S. Representative to the United Nations¹

Congressional Advisers

John W. Bricker, U.S. Senate

W. Sterling Cole, House of Representatives

Paul J. Kilday, House of Representatives

John O. Pastore, U.S. Senate

Senior Advisers

Gerard C. Smith, Special Assistant to the Secretary of State for Atomic Energy Matters

John A. Hall, Director, Division of International Affairs, Atomic Energy Commission

Advisers

Norman Armour, Jr., U.S. Mission to the United Nations

Spofford G. English, Atomic Energy Commission

Philip J. Farley, Department of State

Max Isenbergh, Atomic Energy Commission

Leonard C. Meeker, Department of State

David McKillop, Department of State

Joel Orlen, Atomic Energy Commission

Ronald Spiers, Department of State

Algie A. Wells, Atomic Energy Commission

The IAEA Conference will be a major step in the fulfillment of the atoms-for-peace proposal made by President Eisenhower in his address before the General Assembly of the United Nations on December 8, 1953.

Eighty-seven states members of the United Nations or of its specialized agencies have been invited to attend the conference, which is jointly sponsored by the 12-nation group which negotiated the draft statute at Washington, D. C., in the spring of this year.²

Current Treaty Actions

MULTILATERAL

Telecommunications

International telecommunication convention. Signed at Buenos Aires December 22, 1952. Entered into force January 1, 1954. TIAS 3266.

Ratifications deposited: Portugal, July 20, 1956; Cambodia, July 31, 1956.

Final protocol to the international telecommunication con-

¹ Ambassador Wadsworth was appointed by President Eisenhower on Aug. 2 (BULLETIN of Aug. 13, 1956, p. 293).

² For the final communique of the 12-nation group, see *ibid.*, Apr. 30, 1956, p. 729.

vention. Signed at Buenos Aires December 22, 1952. Entered into force January 1, 1954. TIAS 3266.
Ratification deposited: Portugal, July 20, 1956.
 Additional protocols to the international telecommunication convention. Signed at Buenos Aires December 22, 1952. Entered into force December 22, 1952.
Ratification deposited: Portugal, July 20, 1956.

Trade and Commerce

Third protocol of supplementary concessions to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (Denmark and Federal Republic of Germany). Done at Geneva July 15, 1955.

Enters into force: September 19, 1956.

Fourth protocol of supplementary concessions to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (Federal Republic of Germany and Norway). Done at Geneva July 15, 1955.

Enters into force: September 19, 1956.

Fifth protocol of supplementary concessions to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (Federal Republic of Germany and Sweden). Done at Geneva July 15, 1955.

Enters into force: September 19, 1956.

BILATERAL

Dominican Republic

Agreement for establishment and operation of a rawinsonde observation station at Sabana de la Mar. Effected by exchange of notes at Ciudad Trujillo July 25 and August 11, 1956. Enters into force on date an arrangement embodying the technical details is signed by the cooperating agencies of the two Governments.

New Zealand

Agreement for cooperation concerning civil uses of atomic energy. Signed at Washington June 13, 1956.

Entered into force: August 29, 1956 (date on which each Government notified the other that it had complied with all statutory and constitutional requirements).

Nicaragua

Agreement extending the Air Force Mission agreement of November 19, 1952 (TIAS 2683). Effected by exchange of notes at Managua August 21 and 27, 1956. Entered into force August 27, 1956.

DEPARTMENT AND FOREIGN SERVICE

Center for Foreign Visitors To Be Established at Seattle

Press release 447 dated August 27

A new reception center for special visitors from other countries will be established at Seattle, Wash., in January 1957. It will be maintained by the Department of State and operated under the joint sponsorship of the International Educational Exchange Service and the International Cooperation Administration as a service center for

persons invited to the United States under the educational exchange and economic and technical assistance programs. Other such centers are located at Honolulu, Miami, New Orleans, New York, and San Francisco.

The new center will accommodate visitors from Formosa, Korea, and Japan who travel by way of the great circle route with Seattle as the port of entry, as well as other foreign nationals who may visit the area during their stay in this country. It will provide a focal point for utilization of the resources available in the Pacific Northwest in the form of organizations, business enterprises, universities, groups, and individuals wishing to cooperate in helping the Department's guests from other lands gain a better understanding of the United States. Services provided by the reception centers include facilitation of local program and hospitality arrangements providing the visitors an opportunity to observe and participate in American community life.

Outstanding among the voluntary organizations in the Seattle area which have cooperated in the past are the Committee on Friendly Relations Among Foreign Students, the University of Washington, and the World Affairs Council.

During 1955 the centers at Miami, New Orleans, New York, and San Francisco served a combined total of more than 10,000 foreign nationals entering or leaving the United States, including a number of visitors of diplomatic rank. It is estimated that approximately 1,000 persons will be assisted annually by the Seattle center.

Consular Offices

An American Consulate will be reestablished at Georgetown, British Guiana, opening officially on October 1, 1956. The Consulate, operating under the supervision of the Consulate General at Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, will include in its district all of British Guiana, which will be removed from the Port-of-Spain consular district effective October 1.

Designations

John A. Hopkins as Deputy Director, Office of Inter-American Regional Economic Affairs, effective August 12.

Jacques J. Reinstein as Director, Office of German Affairs, Bureau of European Affairs, effective August 26.

Frederick T. Merrill as Director, East-West Contact Staff, effective August 28.

PUBLICATIONS

Recent Releases

For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Address requests direct to the Superintendent of Documents, except in the case of free publications, which may be obtained from the Department of State.

Your Department of State. Pub. 6333. Department and Foreign Service Series 53. 5¢.

A revised folder giving a brief sketch of tasks performed by the Department of State, the principles by which it operates, and its foreign policy goals.

Swords into Plowshares. Pub. 6344. International Information and Cultural Series 48. 56 pp. 25¢.

A publication containing the story of the Educational Exchange Program authorized by the Fulbright Act of 1946.

United Nations—76 Countries Pledged To Act. Pub. 6349. International Organization and Conference Series III, 116. 10¢.

A folder giving briefly the aims and accomplishments of the United Nations.

The International Educational Exchange Program—Sixteenth Semiannual Report of the Secretary of State to Congress, July 1–December 31, 1955. Pub. 6351. International Information and Cultural Series 49. 18 pp. 15¢.

The report reviews the activities carried out by the International Educational Exchange Service of the Department of State during the period July 1–December 31, 1955, together with an appraisal of their effectiveness.

General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade, Schedule XX, United States of America. Pub. 6362. Commercial Policy Series 159. 126 pp. 60¢.

GATT, Schedule XX, annotated to show countries with which concessions were initially negotiated at Geneva in 1956.

Air Service—Lease of Equipment to the Federal Republic of Germany. TIAS 3464. Pub. 6270. 7 pp. 10¢.

Agreement between the United States and the Federal Republic of Germany—Signed at Bonn August 2, 1955. Entered into force August 2, 1955.

Emergency Relief Assistance to Pakistan—Agricultural Commodities. TIAS 3466. Pub. 6271. 5 pp. 5¢.

Agreement between the United States and Pakistan—Supplementing agreement of January 18, 1955—Signed at Karachi September 29, 1955. Entered into force September 29, 1955.

United States Educational Foundation in Denmark. TIAS 3501. 5 pp. 5¢.

Agreement between the United States and Denmark—Modifying agreement of August 23, 1951. Exchange of notes—Signed at Copenhagen February 17, 1956. Entered into force February 17, 1956.

Passport Visas. TIAS 3508. 8 pp. 10¢.

Agreement between the United States and Turkey. Exchange of notes—Dated at Washington June 27, August

8, September 27, and October 11, 1955. Entered into force October 11, 1955.

Surplus Agricultural Commodities. TIAS 3516. 6 pp. 5¢.

Agreement, with exchange of notes, between the United States and the Republic of Korea—Signed at Seoul March 13, 1956. Entered into force March 13, 1956.

Surplus Agricultural Commodities. TIAS 3517. 4 pp. 5¢.

Agreement between the United States and Turkey—Signed at Ankara March 12, 1956. Entered into force March 12, 1956.

Sale and Purchase of Tin Concentrates. TIAS 3518. 1 p. 5¢.

Agreement between the United States and Thailand—Supplementing agreement of November 14, 1955—Signed at Bangkok March 12, 1956. Entered into force March 12, 1956.

United States Military Mission With the Imperial Iranian Gendarmerie. TIAS 3519. 3 pp. 5¢.

Agreement between the United States and Iran—Extending agreement of November 27, 1943, as amended and extended. Exchange of notes—Signed at Tehran February 13, 1956. Entered into force February 13, 1956.

Surplus Agricultural Commodities. TIAS 3533. 4 pp. 5¢.

Agreement between the United States and Finland—Supplementing agreement of May 6, 1955, as supplemented—Signed at Helsinki March 26, 1956. With related exchange of notes—Dated at Helsinki March 26, 1956. Entered into force March 26, 1956.

Surplus Agricultural Commodities. TIAS 3534. 3 pp. 5¢.

Agreement between the United States and Finland—Amending agreement of May 6, 1955, as supplemented. Exchange of notes—Signed at Helsinki March 26, 1956. Entered into force March 26, 1956.

American Dead in World War II. TIAS 3535. 6 pp. 20¢.

Agreement between the United States and the Netherlands—Implementing agreement of April 11, 1947. Exchange of notes—Dated at The Hague September 26, 1951. Entered into force September 26, 1951.

American Dead in World War II. TIAS 3537. 18 pp. 40¢.

Agreement between the United States and France—Implementing and completing agreement of October 1, 1947—Signed at Paris March 19, 1956. Entered into force March 19, 1956.

Penal Administration in the Federal Republic of Germany. TIAS 3549. 52 pp. 20¢.

Agreement between the United States and other governments—Opened for signature at Bonn September 29, 1955. With exchanges of notes between the Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Federal Republic of Germany and the American Ambassador—Signed at Bonn and Bonn/Bad Godesberg November 1 and December 20, 1955. And notes of the Chancellor of the Federal Republic of Germany—Signed at Bonn October 14 and November 7, 1953. Entered into force retroactively May 5, 1955.

Civil Aviation Mission to Colombia. TIAS 3550. 12 pp. 10¢.

Agreement between the United States and Colombia—Superseding agreement of October 23, December 3 and 22, 1947. Exchange of notes—Signed at Bogotá January 17

and March 27, 1956. Entered into force March 27, 1956.
Defense—Construction and Operation of Housing Units in Newfoundland. TIAS 3552. 17 pp. 10¢.

Agreement between the United States and Canada. Exchange of notes—Dated at Ottawa April 18 and 19, 1956. Entered into force April 19, 1956.

Surplus Agricultural Commodities. TIAS 3553. 3 pp. 5¢.

Agreement between the United States and Greece—Amending agreement of June 24, 1955. Exchange of notes—Signed at Athens and Corfu February 13 and 17, 1956. Entered into force February 17, 1956.

Economic Assistance to Ceylon. TIAS 3554. 10 pp. 10¢.

Agreement between the United States and Ceylon. Exchange of notes—Signed at Colombo April 28, 1956. Entered into force April 28, 1956.

Reduction in Japanese Expenditures Under Article XXV 2 (b) of the Administrative Agreement of February 28, 1952. TIAS 3555. 9 pp. 10¢.

Arrangement between the United States and Japan. Exchange of notes—Signed at Tokyo April 24, 1956. Entered into force April 24, 1956.

Annual and Progressive Reduction in Japanese Expenditures Under Article XXV 2 (b) of the Administrative Agreement of February 28, 1952. TIAS 3556. 9 pp. 10¢.

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Operation of Certain Radio Installations from Within the Federal Republic of Germany. TIAS 3559. 14 pp. 10¢.

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Agreement between the United States and Italy. Exchange of notes—Signed at Rome April 27, 1956. Entered into force April 27, 1956.

Defense—Offshore Procurement Program. TIAS 3567. 26 pp. 15¢.

Understanding between the United States and Yugoslavia—Signed at Belgrade October 18, 1954. Entered into force October 18, 1954. With related letters—Signed at Belgrade October 18, 1954.

Surplus Agricultural Commodities. TIAS 3570. 9 pp. 10¢.

Agreement between the United States and Paraguay—

Signed at Asunción May 2, 1956. Entered into force May 18, 1956.

Passport Visas. TIAS 3573. 9 pp. 10¢.

Agreement between the United States and Panama. Exchange of notes—Signed at Panamá March 27, May 22 and 25, 1956. Entered into force June 1, 1956.

Mutual Defense Assistance—Disposition of Equipment and Materials. TIAS 3571. 8 pp. 10¢.

Agreement between the United States and China. Exchange of notes—Signed at Taipei April 3, 1956. Entered into force April 3, 1956.

Certificates of Airworthiness for Imported Aircraft. TIAS 3574. 8 pp. 10¢.

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Mutual Defense Assistance—Construction of Certain Facilities for Use by Pakistani Armed Forces. TIAS 3575. 5 pp. 5¢.

Agreement between the United States and Pakistan—Signed at Karachi May 28, 1956. Entered into force May 28, 1956.

Military Assistance Advisory Group. TIAS 3576. 4 pp. 5¢.

Agreement between the United States and Honduras. Exchange of notes—Signed at Tegucigalpa April 17 and 25, 1956. Entered into force April 26, 1956.

Foreign Service Personnel—Free-Entry Privileges. TIAS 3577. 4 pp. 5¢.

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Prevention of Foot-and-Mouth Disease—Financing of Commission Operations. TIAS 3578. 6 pp. 5¢.

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Agricultural Commodities. TIAS 3579. 5 pp. 5¢.

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Agricultural Commodities. TIAS 3580. 32 pp. 15¢.

Agreement between the United States and Japan—Signed at Tokyo February 10, 1956. Entered into force May 29, 1956. With agreed official minutes and exchange of notes—Signed at Tokyo February 10, 1956.

Agricultural Commodities—School Children's Welfare Program. TIAS 3581. 6 pp. 5¢.

Agreement between the United States and Japan. Exchange of notes—Signed at Tokyo February 10, 1956. Entered into force February 10, 1956.

Agricultural Commodities—School Lunch Program. TIAS 3582. 19 pp. 15¢.

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Check List of Department of State Press Releases: September 3-9

Releases may be obtained from the News Division, Department of State, Washington 25, D. C.
Press releases issued prior to September 3 which appear in this issue of the BULLETIN are Nos. 447 of August 27, 454 of August 29, 459 of August 30, and 463 of August 31.

No.	Date	Subject
*466	9/4	Educational exchange.
467	9/5	Morocco credentials (rewrite).
468	9/6	Tunisia credentials (rewrite).
469	9/6	Proposed U.S.-Rumanian talks.
470	9/6	Delegation to Atomic Energy Agency conference.
471	9/7	South Africa credentials (rewrite).

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4. The progress made toward early establishment of the International Finance Corporation.
5. The decision to explore the organization of a Special United Nations Fund for Economic Development.
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